TENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION *of the* ASSOCIATION *of* HISTORY TEACHERS *of the* MIDDLE STATES *and* MARYLAND

Held in New York, March Eighth and Ninth, Nineteen Hundred and Twelve

1912

Price Twenty-Five Cents

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SYNOPSIS OF PROCEEDINGS

Normal College, New York

March 8 and 9, 1912

FRIDAY AFTERNOON

Paper: The Certification of High School Teachers of History.
Edgar Dawson, Normal College, New York.

Discussion: Sarah A. Dynes, Normal School, Trenton.
James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn.
Livingston Rowe Schuyler, College of the City of New York.
Jessie Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia.

Report of the Committee on the Teaching of Economics in High Schools, A. L. Pugh, High School of Commerce, New York, Chairman.

Discussion: Edwin T.Whiffen, High School of Commerce, New York.
Henry R. Burch, Manual Training High School, Philadelphia.
Clara Byrnes, Normal College, New York.
Eugene W. Lyttle, Regent's Office, Albany.
Livingston Rowe Schuyler, College of the City of New York.
Daniel C. Knowlton, Central High School, Newark.

SATURDAY MORNING

General Topic: Historical Geography.

Address: William R. Shepherd, Columbia University, New York.

Papers: What High School Pupils Know About Historical Geography.
Elizabeth Briggs, Horace Mann High School, New York.

Paper: What Can Be Done to Improve the Teaching of Historical Geography.
J. F. Sheehan, Principal Public School, No. 153, Brooklyn.

General Discussion: Frederick H. Paine, Eastern District High School, Brooklyn.
Arthur M. Wolfson, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York.
Albert E. McKinley, History Teachers' Magazine, Philadelphia.
Julius Sachs, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.
William E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.
Katherine F. Belcher, Barringer High School, Newark.

Business Meeting: Reports and Election of Officers.

The following resolutions were adopted:

1. Resolved, That at some future meeting this association discuss the recommendations in regard to history made in the Report of the Committee on High School Curricula of the N. E. A., 1911.

2. Resolved, That a committee be appointed by the chair to investigate the kind and the amount of historical geography that should be taught in connection with history in high schools.

3. Resolved, That a committee be appointed by the chair to investigate the qualifications and preparation of history teachers in the Middle States and Maryland, and report on the desirability of some method for the proper certification of history teachers.

4. Resolved, That the thanks of the association be extended to the Normal College of the City of New York for its hospitality; to the History Department of the Normal College for its generous entertainment; to the different speakers for the valuable help rendered; to the American Book Company for generously printing the proceedings of the association.

MEETING OF THE COUNCIL

The Council voted to hold a joint meeting of the Association with the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, in Philadelphia, November 29th and 30th, 1912.

CERTIFICATION OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS OF HISTORY.

EDGAR DAWSON

NORMAL COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY

Something over a year ago the American Historical Association appointed a committee to study the preparation and certificate of High School Teachers of History. Since then there has been more or less activity among the history teachers of various sections of the country with a view to ascertaining what preparation it is desirable and possible to demand from those who wish to study history in secondary schools. The New England History Teachers have given one of their conventions to the subject. Virginia has a committee studying it. Statistics have been collected in California. A committee of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, covering the States from Texas to the Great Lakes, has been working vigorously under the leadership of Professor Paxson, of Wisconsin. In fact, I know of no section of the country which has been entirely inactive during the last year.

As a member of the committee of the American Historical Association I have been collecting information in this section, and I wish to take this occasion to thank the several hundred people who have been good enough to answer the questionnaires I have sent out. The full and vigorous answers that have come to me from school administrators, high school teachers, and college and university professors make it perfectly clear that there is no lack of interest in the subject on the part of our people of the Middle States. What I shall have to say in this paper is mainly a mosaic of the answers I have received to these questions, and I shall not intentionally express a judgment that is not

supported by a majority of the best teachers in this section. I shall have to differ respectfully from some of our co-workers, who are school administrators, as to what it is possible for us to do. They come into such close relations with the tax-payers and the indifferent public that they are less optimistic than are we in our academic shades. They may also be more nearly right than we are. I am not willing to believe, however, that it is impossible to make ours a more respected and desirable profession than it is at present.

It is doubtless a fact that every occupation must be developed, if at all, by its own members. The law is made honorable by the lawyers. Medicine receives respect only as the doctor deserves and demands consideration of the people among whom he moves,—*deserves,* because he shows by his conduct a deep interest in the work he is doing and a thorough preparation for it; demands, by preventing the advent into his profession of quacks and other dishonest or incompetent persons.

It is also true beyond much of a peradventure that the teaching of history may still be improved in the elementary school, the high school and the university. To-day, however, we are concerned especially with the work in the high school. There is no teacher who has not heard lamentations that history is so often taught by untrained teachers. Five years ago a discussion of the course of study resolved itself into its elements when Professor McLaughlin wrote "At the bottom the trouble rests . . . in the supreme difficulty in teaching history well and in the lack of preparation of the teacher. As long as it is thought that anyone can teach history even if he has not studied it . . . so long will history occupy a distinguished position among the diseducational subjects." Professor McLaughlin doubtless had in mind the young person who was being examined for a license to teach. She skipped all the history questions. When the examiner remonstrated with her for the omission she replied with astonishment, "Why I saw no use in answering them. Anybody can teach history. You have it all right there in the book before you." That sounds very ridiculous, of course, but it becomes tragic when you find school authorities and college professors who do not recognize the fundamental error in her position. We have not put ourselves

to the trouble to let the public know that it is inconsistent to refuse a license to teach zoology to a candidate who cannot tell a sheep from a kangaroo, but grant permission to teach civics to one who doesn't know a veto from a referendum, and history to one who supposes, if he has ever heard of the period, that the Germanic peoples awoke one morning and said, "This is a fine day to invade the Roman Empire," and proceeded to the invasions. It has ceased to be a joke, and has become a calamity to our school children. It is time for us to cease pointing to our next neighbor, as in the famous Nash cartoon; we must accept the responsibility, and correct the erroneous notions.

One way to make a profession more useful is to demand a longer apprenticeship and a better preparation from those who enter it. A gentleman whom to know is to respect, remarks that to set up a high standard for teachers is too hard on the poor who wish to become teachers. They cannot afford to go through such long years of preparation. For him and for all of us that objection must answer itself when we turn our attention from the poor who wish to teach to the poor who wish to be taught. It is a crime to waste the years of youth in order to provide positions for incompetent grown people. That is a truism I realize, but its truth is respected most often in the violation. If we are to have more efficient history teachers we must become more inflexible in our insistence on thorough preparation before teaching begins. I hear the remark that most of us have heard. The salaries are too small. And I agree that they are, and they always will be small if the wall around the position is so low that every non-descript feels justified in essaying it. Put your standards up and instead of there being a long waiting list for every half-paid position, the place will be obliged to seek the candidate, as it should, and then we can hope for respectful recognition of the worth of those who apply.

What would be the effect if we could persuade the public that we need high school teachers as well prepared as are the teachers of France and Germany? In either country the secondary school teacher has a training equal to that of the doctor of philosophy, though of a different, and for their purpose a far better, kind. The German youth, after he has graduated from the gymnasium, spends

about five years in the university. He was the equal of a rising junior when he began his university course. He has on finishing it, therefore, the equivalent of three years of graduate work.

Turning from the east to the west, we find that even in remote California every high school teacher must have had a year of graduate work, and in one of her cities at least, he must have had two years of such training. Again I would remind you that this is not the common Ph.D. course, but instruction planned with secondary school work in view. Thorough preparation in the Middle States waits only on the action of those whose duty it is to attend to it, the teachers themselves, who must strengthen their profession.

Let us then outline what may reasonably be made a requirement for eligibility in this section. For the sake of clearness I wish to call attention here to the need of avoiding the position of four classes of extremists. (1) Those who are satisfied with no history, (2) and those who wish too much specializing in it; (3) those who wish no pedagogical training, and (4) those who would over emphasize it. A requirement must recognize two elements. The amount of time, that is the opportunity, the candidate has given himself; and, the way he has spent his time, the way he has used his opportunity. In the first place as a certificate of opportunity every candidate should present the bachelor's degree. This should be the lower limit even for the small remote high schools. Of course, we all know excellent teachers who have no college degree. We all know university professors who are not college graduates, men able and renowned. But the point is, the school administrators need a rod with which to keep out the incompetent, one that is apparent to boards of education. The schools will be better off lacking the occasional genius who makes a good teacher without a college education if his coming in must leave an open gap through which follow a train of indifferent teachers. They will so enter when their friends insist to the school authorities that they are just as capable as is the genius. What other criterion can the superintendents set up in such a case? For the poorest school then, we demand the college degree; for the somewhat better schools a year of graduate work; and for the schools that pay good salaries and give the opportunity to teach

only one subject, two years of graduate work should be asked. This is as much as any school should demand, and it should lead not to the doctorate, but to a broad and well-planned master's course. Now this should be demanded before the license is granted. One of the chief objections to insisting on the college degree is that it so often does not represent anything in particular. Some one has recently suggested that the symbol of the degree be changed in the interest of accuracy to B.Y., for example, Bachelor of Yale, or B.P., Bachelor of Princeton. If to this were added the year in which the degree is conferred, the description would be fairly accurate. I see no reason, however, why the candidate should not present certificates covering the courses actually completed in the college. These should be accepted by the school authorities as assurance that the work has been done, with the same confidence as should be accepted the certificates of the schools for admission to college.

This brings us to the other element of preparation. Given the time spent in college and university what courses shall be taken? First, there should be a liberal education along literary lines; second, there should be special education in history and the sciences of society; third, there should be training in what, for want of a better word, we must call pedagogy.

General education, special knowledge, practical training is what we demand. Of course we demand personality, generous nature, noble ideals, honesty, industry, loyalty, and magnetism. And we shall be told that these are more important than all the academic training. Moreover we shall agree that they are, without the least hesitation. But all the walks of life need these, and we are differentiating the profession of history teaching from the other occupations. A person is not debarred from any of the characteristics by the fact that he has been trained for the work he expects to do. Moreover, it is almost impossible to find out whether exceptional loyalty, or honor, exist until the candidate has been teaching for some time, and then it is too late. As to the training, on the other hand, we can get fairly satisfactory certification of its character.

What then do we mean by a liberal education along literary lines, special knowledge, and practical training?

The liberal education must include a reading knowledge of two languages besides English. At this time it is unnecessary to defend this proposition. We all know the broadening influence of familiarity with new and untranslatable words, foreign ideas, the drill in accuracy that the study of the foreign forms and constructions of speech gives. We also know how difficult it is to arrive at the best use of our own language, so important for the history teacher, without some practice in the use of another. I do not mention the fact the historical scholar must read discussions now and then which he cannot find in his own language.

A second element of the sort of liberal education our candidate will need is a sympathetic familiarity with the great biological generalizations and hypotheses, with which must go such knowledge of modern science as is common to all cultivated people, including the elements of physics, chemistry, geology, geography and astronomy. How can one teach the great cosmological awakening incidental to the end of the Middle Ages without knowing a little astronomy? I am not sure how this science should be administered or how its command should be tested, but it should be demanded and can be had without Herculean efforts.

A third element in this liberal education should be some of the sort of training to be derived from the study of mathematics or logic. Given the fundamentals of geometry and algebra I am disposed to lean for the history student toward the logic, deductive and inductive, if it is well taught. There are few more enlightening experiences than a good stiff course in these two sorts of discipline. And it is a sad type of young mind which does not respond to them with alacrity; the mind to which inductive logic does not appeal should not attempt to specialize in the social sciences.

So much for the theoretical content of the liberal education. As a practical aspect of it, one should remember that high school teachers seldom find positions to teach history alone. I myself see no good reason why history and mathematics, or history and modern language, and possibly some English with either combination, is not practicable for the teacher who is properly prepared and certificated in these things. It is not unusual for the German history teacher to take classes in the German language and

religion with the history. He is master of the subjects in which he is certificated, in which alone he is permitted to instruct classes. He is a wise candidate who in getting his liberal education takes up the languages or the mathematics with the view to falling back upon them if necessary. This does not reduce, but rather enhances their value as means of education, for they are undertaken with greater and more active interest.

In California, out of 316 history teachers in high schools, only 90 were last year teaching history alone. I repeat, this is not an objectionable condition, but it is depressing when we find that only five per cent. had specialized in history at College.

We turn now from the liberal education to special knowledge of history and the sciences of society. To this field the candidate should have given about one-third of his attention, possibly only thirty per cent. when his preparation is limited to the four undergraduate years. As to what should compose this major in history and the social sciences, opinions will differ widely. It must certainly contain a good strong course in economics, not necessarily in order to teach economics as a separate subject in the schools, but for proper emphasis in the teaching of history and the better education of the candidate. Of a hundred picked teachers to whom a questionnaire was sent, one-fourth answered that the greatest need they felt was for some training in this subject. The others had probably had it. There must, of course, be one *grundlegendes* study of political science with stress on actual government, rather than theory; and all centered about the government of the United States. Then there should be generous study of history,—economic, political and social. The purpose of this is not the acquisition of facts, although these are far more useful and desirable than it is customary to consider them in some quarters to-day; but to make the candidate master of his field in a better sense. He must have *bibliographical knowledge, perspective, critical judgment, confidence,* and, most important of all, an interest in and an enthusiasm for the subject. He must know why he is going to teach history and have a real interest in doing so. He must be able to deal with his subject as one having authority and not as those who copy manuscripts; one who lives in the spirit of his subject and loves it.

I quote a few reasons given by others for a fairly complete

knowledge of history on the part of the candidate. "To create interest on the part of the pupil; to add to the teacher's enthusiasm; to save the energy of the teacher and to keep him fresh; to give a broader outlook to the teacher and confidence to the pupil; to give the teacher a definite purpose and point of view; to prevent mere cramming with facts which is unintelligent savagery; to save from slavery to the text-book (which is not meant as an argument against the use of the text-book); I do not think any amount of historical knowledge counts for so much as familiarity with the way history is written and a good sense of what history itself really is." We must avoid a vicious circle of studying history in order to teach others who are studying it to teach it, and so on, world without end, to no real purpose.

A more concrete discussion of the curriculum for the history major is being prepared by a committee of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, who hope to offer some useful suggestions to the prospective history teacher as to the division of his energy among such subjects as American history; English history, ancient, medieval and modern history, special advanced courses, seminary work, government, etc. Implied in their report will also be a suggestion as to what school authorities may best demand from the candidate when he comes up for certification.

This same report is to take up the question of pedagogical training which topic brings us to the *third element* in the content of the candidate's college course, namely, practical training. This is a painful subject. I have never heard the training of history teachers discussed in any considerable assemblage in which beneath the courteous phrases of the addresses was not discoverable on the one hand the kindly condescension in the mind of the university man for the pedagogue, and on the other the respectful pity the practical teacher has for the mere book-worm. This antagonism is disappearing somewhat; but it has not been long since one camp insisted that almost no knowledge of the subject is sufficient if only an adequate amount of pedagogy is provided, while their antagonists contended that pedagogy is mere quackery and that if a teacher knows his subject all other things come of evil. My own opinion on the matter is of less importance than that of practical teachers in the secondary schools who answer almost

without exception that the candidate must have such pedagogical training. A distinguished student of conditions in this State wrote me: "The candidate should have pedagogical training and practice in college. I see so many wretched failures in high school teaching among inexperienced college graduates, that I feel there must be a general cause underlying it all, namely, the rapid development of the student mind during the college years places the college graduate entirely out of touch with the minds of the younger high school pupils. Unless the college graduates have had pedagogical training and practice, they invariably try to introduce college methods among high school pupils." That such training is eminently desirable can no longer be successfully denied, but the amount and kind to be insisted upon is more difficult to determine. I suggest the following topics in the order of increasing importance as they present themselves to me: Pedagogical psychology and theory; the history of education; the history of history teaching and its main problems; practice and observation in secondary school classes. I apologize for this superficial reference to this great and important field of work; and can only plead lack of time and want of special knowledge to provide a discussion of it that would be helpful. Some are of the opinion that this training should be kept under the guidance of the history department, while others would turn it over bodily to the department of education. I should be disposed to divide it and bring about co-operation between the two departments; the history department keeping the development of history teaching and its special problems, and the department of pedagogy assuming responsibility for the history and theory of education. We should then come to some such summary of the course of study as the following: The candidate should present the bachelor's degree and generally a year of graduate work; he should present certificates that he has completed satisfactorily a third of the work required for the bachelor's degree in the department of history and the social sciences; he should present a reading knowledge of two foreign languages; his certificates should present a fair knowledge of science, with mathematics or logic and adequate pedagogical training,—say 12 units in the college course. The year or years of graduate work should have been

done under the direction of the department of history, with secondary school work in view.

At this point I am somewhat at a loss how to proceed, for I am confident that this discussion is open to two sorts of criticism: Some will agree with most of it, and ask "What of it? I know a good many teachers with just such preparation;" others will pronounce any such program wholly chimerical, and out of the question. It is to this second class that I beg to address the remainder of what I have to say, for what we need is not some trained teachers, but to see to it that we have no other sort.

A well-informed university teacher says: "I look forward with confidence and anticipation to the time when all teachers in our country will be expected to have equipped themselves with college and university training for the pursuit of a profession which should be as learned as, and which is of far more importance to the normal life of the world than law, medicine, or divinity." If this much-to-be-desired consummation is ever to be reached, three classes of persons must be brought to see the light; school administrators, the general public, and the colleges and universities. The school administrators must be strengthened, some sand must be added to their composition, and they must be educated. The general public must be convinced that it is as important to teach a youth at sixteen when his life is being shaped and his ideals set as to teach him at twenty-two; that it is as important to train the healthy mind as to heal the sick body or reform the crooked conscience, or do any of the other less important services for which society pays a comfortable and respected living. The colleges and universities of the East must be persuaded to follow the lead of those of the West and accept a responsible position in the system of public education, whether they happen to be privately endowed or not. If they wish candidates for admission from the public schools (as they do), they must set about to help provide the right sort of teachers for those schools in larger numbers with greater discrimination. This last class, the universities, will be the one most easily brought to do their part. They have been accustomed to plead that they could not conscientiously advise young people to prepare especially for high school work because the demand for properly prepared persons is too limited. A university

professor writes me "I believe that more attention should be given to the particular problems that this class of students will afterwards be obliged to confront and solve." Another professor in the same university says, "We have not at present any special course for teachers, but I am inclined to think that if this were required as a part of the preparation for teaching history in high schools, our university would be quite ready to respond to the requirement."

One of the best of the classical colleges: "I am glad to say that next year our educational department is to be considerably enlarged." This is from a member of the history department, not of the pedagogical.

With the public and the school administrators, who are the representatives of the public to a large extent, we should have more trouble, and mainly because *they do not know*. They actually have no idea whatever, what history is or why it is taught, or who can teach it. I cannot lay too much stress on that fact. Their lack of information on this subject is monumental. It is abysmal. I have no words with which to express it. Yet the condition is largely to be laid at our door, at the door of the teachers of history. We know and have not told them plainly and directly enough.

We must keep at work and in co-operation with the other associations who are working on this problem we must remove this incubus of responsibility. It may be desirable for our committee to co-operate with committees of English teachers, and language teachers, etc. But we ourselves must state our platform. Should this action be taken, I urge you to use every effort short of bribery and corruption to advance the work of that committee. The older and more conservative of my correspondents are convinced that the results of our work will be slow in coming and discouragingly small, but they nevertheless without exception urge that we begin at once. The effort will be a long and hard one, but it must be made by us at some time. They urge that we undertake it in the spirit of a crusade.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE TEACHING OF ECONOMICS IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

A. L. Pugh, High School of Commerce, New York, *Chairman*

The report was in the form of answers to three questions: Why teach political economy in the high school? Can it be taught in the high school? How shall it be taught?

First, economics should be taught in the high school because of the many economics problems facing the every-day citizen; because its reasoning methods are closely akin to those used in ordinary life; because history teachers are emphasizing industrial and economic history, but are giving no adequate organization of the facts so presented; and because only one person (college graduates) in five hundred will receive training in economics if it is not given in the high school.

Second, Can economics be taught in the high school? Many persons urge that it cannot, because there are no adequate text-books and no trained teachers, and because the subject is too difficult. Mr. Pugh pointed to the large display of text-books he had placed on the table as answer to the first objection. He said that history teachers had usually studied the subject of economics and were qualified to teach it to high school students. He said that it had been taught successfully in the first year of the New York High School of Commerce for the past seven years. The material was so vast that it is possible to select that part of it fitted to students of any particular grade.

Third, as to how economics should be taught, Mr. Pugh advised putting it into the fourth year of the high school course in place of higher mathematics or second year physics. There should be a small text-book to give the theory; and in the second half of the course a study of special problems, such as the trusts, money, labor and transportation. In commercial courses the economics should occupy two years and should be preceded by a

strong course in commercial geography. In agricultural schools, it should take the form of the economics of agriculture.

In the discussion which followed, the suggestion was made and opposed that sociology be put in the high school course. The fear was expressed that economics might take some of the time devoted to fourth year history, but it seemed to be the general opinion that it should take its own place among the subjects fit for high school study, and that history should not be sacrificed to it any more than any other subject might be compelled to yield to the incorporation of a new course in the curriculum. Among those participating in the discussion were Miss Byrnes, Messrs. Lyttle, Schuyler, and Knowlton.

The committee was thanked for its report, and continued for another year with the request that a syllabus be prepared for high school economics.

DISCUSSION

EDWIN E. WHIFFEN, High School of Commerce, New York: The tendency of education to-day is more and more toward practical things. The old classical tradition, beautiful as it was, and valuable as it really is, has lost much of its influence. Rightly to interpret life, education has turned ever constantly toward science.

In place of the Latin and Greek classics which with mathematics constituted, until within a half century, or so, the all in all of the curriculum, physical science has become dominant. But, while chemistry, physics, botany, zoology, biology, have an important place they cannot in themselves completely satisfy the demands of modern civilization, they cannot train the individual to take his proper place as a social unit. It should go almost without saying that the subject which can explain human life in society must be a subject which studies society itself, its origin, its development, its workings, its explanation of human life in groups, in other words—social science.

Along these lines history may accomplish some things; but at its best and fullest it cannot give sufficient interpretation especially of the more modern problems of everyday life about us. Any subject, even though at present imperfectly developed, which will assist in giving the adult or adolescent mind even a rudimentary glimpse of modern social and industrial conditions deserves a serious consideration of its claims to be incorporated into our present day high school curriculum. Fortunately, those subjects are already at hand and fairly developed. They are elementary sociology and economics, in which text-books suitable for high school use have already been prepared.

The following are some of the reasons which would seem to render it advisable to incorporate elementary sociology and economics into our high school curricula, even if some mathematics, or history, or physical science must be curtailed. An individual may be a useful citizen and serviceable in his day and generation, even if he cannot describe the structure of the amoeba, "square the circle," or distinguish between the systems of feudalism and chivalry. Just as our fathers are said to have respected too highly the classical fetich, may there not be danger of setting too much store by the study of history, or pure mathematics, or physical science? "The proper study of mankind is"—society.

In the first place, the study of elementary sociology and economics is in line with the scientific trend of the age. A scientific cast of mind has already come over present day civilization. The transition from all physical science to part social science will be far less of a break with existing conditions than the change which once took place from the classics to physical science.

Again, as a training for citizenship such study can re-inforce the sanction to right living in which religion is losing somewhat of its force. Franklin must have had some such idea somewhat dimly in mind, when he tells us in his charming biography that in certain matters he thought the prohibitions of religion might be based in reason, although he could not understand exactly why. Formerly it was sufficient to urge divine forbiddance or command for the right conduct of life. But people will no longer do or abstain from doing "because the Bible says so." In the line of this instruction, the Church is wiser than the school. Clergymen are carefully studying social science and applying its deductions in their ministry. Some churches even have regular courses of lectures on social science.

Such a study will give a scientific basis for moral conduct. Many evils of modern society, as far as the individual is concerned, begin in ignorance and are too well rooted in practice when knowledge through experience is gained. A practical knowledge of conditions will serve as a prevention. Much has been done to this end by ethics; but interest is lacking on account of the abstract nature of the subject. Sociology furnishes a concrete basis for ethics.

Elementary sociology and economics will in part satisfy the curiosity of the adolescent as to certain facts in society and life. That this curiosity exists is demonstrated by the fact that students, when allowed to select, are choosing such subjects in preference to others more remotely related to present conditions. It is a waste of pedagogical energy not to take proper advantage of this situation.

It seems reasonable, also, to contend that such study as above suggested will make for greater solidarity of industrial classes. We are told that above one person in five hundred in this country goes to college; a still smaller per cent. take courses in social science. Hence some even of the most elementary principles of social science are practically unknown to the mass. About fifteen per cent. of elementary school graduates go to high school. If each high school student were required to study social science, this percentage of our population would have some rudimentary knowledge along this line which might thus be spread. Of little avail are learned articles about class consciousness, wages and capital, and the unearned increment, in the face of such ignorance.

If, as some believe, socialism is wrong in principle, its leaders are at least astute enough to use elementary knowledge of social science to secure their following.

The relation of the high school curriculum to that of the college also deserves some consideration even if only a minor one. There are few subjects at present offered in the higher institutions of learning, which have not received some attention in the secondary schools. But in the social sciences, except history, the student begins his work *ab initio*. Such preparation as might be gained in one year even will enable colleges to maintain more advanced courses in these subjects, and thus tend to promote efficiency.

Training along these lines cannot be so readily obtained by the unassisted individual. Society is so complex, its processes are so vast, that co-operation and co-ordination of even skilled minds are essential to progress. What the adult cannot readily by himself obtain is not likely to be picked up by the adolescent at first hand. Yet under competent direction a fairly youthful scholar will obtain some knowledge of the elementary facts of social science.

It will be admitted, I think, that, on account of the increasing complexity of social and industrial conditions, it is becoming increasingly difficult to prevent or even diminish a wide cleavage in the social classes in this country. The simple solution of life which enabled our fathers to erect and transmit to us our government, our industries, our social customs, will not satisfy present conditions. Any society can best stand in which the greatest possible knowledge of the processes and laws of that society is secured to each of its members. This will promote efficiency. Our present standard of social culture and citizenship must be as widely diffused as possible among all classes, if it is to persist. If it becomes a cult, confined to the comparatively few (and who shall say that there is not already grave danger of this?) it is doomed.

E. W. Lyttle, Inspector State Education Department, Albany:

It is true that, prior to 1905, the Regents issued a syllabus of economics that would have done credit to a college, but it was poorly adapted to secondary schools. It is also true that, under that syllabus, a few high schools taught the subject of economics and taught it well; but it is equally true that a very large proportion of the high schools taught the subject in a purely formal way, basing instruction on some very elementary and old-fashioned textbook. Economic definitions and arguments were learned verbatim; economic problems and economic interpretation were things unknown to the old-style teacher. Indeed, to-day, economic, finan-

cial, and industrial questions that appear on history papers are the most poorly answered of all. Not only is this true, but it also appears that many history teachers do not know how to rate the answers to economic questions. If the teachers present could have read the thousands of answer papers in economics that formerly were sent to the Regents' office, they would, I am confident, agree with me that the subject was relatively worth little for high-school purposes.

Since 1910 there has been issued a syllabus of economics based on actual high-school teaching. We believe it to be a worthy syllabus. We recommend its use in commercial high schools and in the commercial and industrial courses of all high schools that can teach the subject properly. We cannot recommend its use generally in high schools up the Satte, because the curricula of these schools are already overloaded, and the introduction of economics in many schools would crowd out other subjects that apparently have more value.

HISTORICAL MAPS AND THEIR MAKING

William R. Shepherd

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Happily the day is passing when the teacher of history was made to resemble a certain member of the family whose obvious vocation was that of the ministry, when the individual who could teach anything or nothing was regarded as eminently the fit and proper person to teach history. No less is it a matter for congratulation that war and politics, so long the primeval and exclusive elements of history, are being subordinated to manifestations of human thought and action more interesting, more instructive, and more significant. Specialization in the teacher and comprehensiveness in the subject require that aid be sought from arts and sciences lying supposedly beyond history's pale, and that each of these, when called upon, should supply the right sort of materials for history's use.

Though many an excellent treatise has furnished the proofs of the powerful influence that geographical conditions have exercised upon the course of human development, historians and teachers of history often show little inclination to recognize the fact. They will admit that historical geography has considerable value. They will even concede that a knowledge of it may be indispensable for a correct understanding of past institutions and events. Yet their recognition proceeds mainly from a realization of the simple truth that when things happen they must happen somewhere. Such occurrences, accordingly, ought to have maps to illustrate them more fully than is possible from the use of the printed page or the spoken word. Just as sermons must have texts, so must histories have maps. Whether the text is a good one and whether the sermon should allude to it, whether the map is worth while and whether it has any particular relevancy, are matters more or less negligible. The inclusion of maps is a sign of yielding obe-

dience to a well-established convention beyond which it is not necessary to go.

However abundantly a text-book may be supplied with pictures, queries, themes, references and the like, the maps, it would seem, get a measure of attention only after all other requirements have been fulfilled. They may be drawn on too small a scale, their details may be faulty, their coloring a smudge, their fitness to the text a nullity; but they are maps and thicken the book. A certain number of sinuous black lines, an array of tiny dots or circles, a caterpillar-like furze or two, an assortment of names erratically spelled, an area of hatching or cross-hatching, a splash of contrasting colors, and behold, the map is done! Its construction and appearance, indeed, are apt to recall the utterance of Lincoln on a certain occasion: "I care but little, so that what is done be comely and not altogether outrageous." If the map reveals no serious errors and if it contains the usual names, its mission is accomplished.

In view of these deficiencies an urgent need has arisen for maps of a character that shall befit the broadening conception of history and shall meet its just demands. On the mechanical side such maps should be drawn with every possible attention to accuracy and clearness. Precision should mark the insertion of geographical details, whether they be natural features or the names of places. The names themselves should be spelled correctly and never permitted to overcrowd a map. Wherever feasible the scale of a map should be sufficiently large to enable the contents to be easily perceived; otherwise it is better to have several maps dealing with different portions of the same area. In the employment of arbitrary signs and devices, also, to represent any particular things, they should be made uniform in application, and not, as often happens, made to refer to different things on different maps.

The color scheme should be determined by considerations of harmony as well as of distinctiveness. No real advantage proceeds from offending the sense of beauty by a resort to glaring contrasts. A juxtaposition of red and green in softened tones presents quite as much differentiation for the purpose of impressing a geographical fact as the ill-assorted companionship of ultra vivid yellows and purples. Ugliness should not be the characteristic of maps any more than of paintings. If the æsthetic sense can be cultivated at the

same time that the historical sense is rendered strong, the gain is all the greater. Nor should the various colors be put on in such a way as to blend, confuse or smudge them. The line of separation should be kept absolutely sharp and clear. In every case in which a given color is employed to designate a certain area, the same color should appear on the same area throughout. Thus, if France is indicated by a green coloring on one map, it should have the same shade on every other map. Adherence to this rule will enable the eye to follow changes readily as they may occur.

The degree of carefulness shown in the preparation of the body of the map should be intensified, if anything, in the composition of the legend. Not only should the explanation contain every device and statement that will render the several features embodied on the map unmistakable in meaning, but it should serve as a convenient place for summarizing all the important items. However obvious the features on a map may seem to be, there is always a possibility that some may be obscure. The legend, accordingly, should be a sort of compact yet comprehensive index. In constructing it a due heed for elaborateness should never be sacrificed to the fear of repeating what may be stated on the body of the map. As a part of such elaborateness especial precautions should be taken to have every colored bar, strip or line kept distinct in shade from its fellows, and made to correspond precisely in coloring to the area or line on the map to which it is intended to refer. Colorings that lack definiteness in this respect are as misleading as they are unsightly. They should be tolerated no less in the legend than on the map.

Every legend that can possibly admit of it should be provided with an accurately determined scale of miles and with an exact designation in figures of the ratio between the size of the areas as the map shows them and the actual size of the areas themselves. In the case of continents or countries about which ignorance of their respective areas is particularly common—*e.g.*, African, Australia, Russia, Brazil, these two devices for measurement should be supplemented by an inset of a relatively small geographical division like Illinois or England to serve as a graphic means of comparison. Placed at some convenient point on the main map where its inclusion will work no disadvantage to any needful details, the inset should mention the name of the specimen division

selected, and should state specifically that it contains so and so many square miles in comparison with the larger area concerned. In this way it would give at a glance those notions of relativity in size which are often the beginnings of historical wisdom.

Turning from mechanical construction to subject matter, the problem of what historical maps should contain now presents itself for solution. From the political and military standpoint certain periods of European history are abundantly provided for in atlases, wall maps and text-book maps. The United States does not fare so well. Here practically all of the material available on a reasonably large scale consists of a lone wall map, semi-historical in character, and a collection or two of charts gaudily colored, insufficient in scope, inaccurate in drawing or statement, and mounted withal on iron stands of dubious stability. Nor is there such a thing in existence as an historical atlas of the United States.

These "beggarly elements of old" no longer suffice. Progressive history recognizes politics and war only for what they are actually worth in its scheme of evaluation. Moreover, it insists that the genius of history is not mnemonic but organic; that the past should be studied in the light of the present and not merely the present in the light of the past. As its themes history should choose the phases of the past in event and institution and thought which are permanently interesting and valuable, which "connect up" with the present, and should relegate the aridly conventional data of memory drills to the limbo of the archaic and outworn. To this end it must seek the explanation of present phenomena in manifestations of human activity that wot not of war and politics alone. It must look to all the sciences and arts for guidance and wise counsel, as these in turn must look to history as the judicial recorder of their development.

Though many of the customary maps of political development may be retained to advantage, efforts should be made to supply those needful to explain political conditions and relationship in accordance with the newer interpretations that history has put upon them. Contemporaneous maps, also, should be introduced and left no longer to political geography alone, as the term is commonly understood. In the strict sense every map that depicts the present situation is historical, for the present only emerges so as to lapse in-

stantly into the past. If for no purpose other than that of comparison, the map that shows things more or less as they are has a measure of usefulness quite as great as the one that describes things as they were.

Maps that deal with wars should illustrate their causes and effects rather than the details of campaigns. Useful as the latter may be to professed students of military science, they have no rightful place in the general teaching of history. Particularly objectionable is the type of map appearing in many an atlas and text-book, the so-called "battle-plan," which aims to depict the positions of armies by means of blocks and dots and dashes ranged about wriggling lines and hirsute curves. Of what avail is it to have the pupil learn that the little blue or green rectangles got before, behind, on the side of, or all the way round, the little red or yellow rectangles, and hence won or lost the piebald combat? The military element in that past may not be omitted, of course, but when geography is summoned to explain it, the seats of only the most important campaigns and the vicinity of only the most important battles are what should appear on the maps. Even these should be limited to the military events that have had the most decisive bearing upon the states of the world as they are constituted to-day. Above all, in maps no less than in the history that they illustrate, the victories of peace should be emphasized, and not the slaughtering of war or the deeds of military prowess that suggest it.

Instead of battle-plans and the vicinity of campaigns, there are other centres of activity capable of graphic representation and possessing a more permanent and useful interest. These are the cities and localities that have played an important role in history. Plans of Athens, Rome, Jerusalem, Constantinople, London and Paris, and maps showing the vicinity of each of them, plans of the Acropolis and the Forum, to mention only the most obvious instances, are of immeasurably greater value than all the battle-plans ever contrived.

While every map should be drawn on a physical basis, showing coast-line, streams, lakes and mountains to the extent that the scale may allow, this concession to geography is not enough for the purposes of history. Since man's performance is conditioned

on nature's provisions, the physical map, pure and simple, is quite indispensable. The various physiographic areas, their diverse configuration, their resources, their rainfall, their climate, whatever, in short, their existence has done to obstruct or to promote the development of the human race must be traced as historical factors of the utmost significance. The relief map and the physical map do not lie within the exclusive province of the geographer. The historian must press them into his service for they are literally the ground-work upon which he stands.

Progressive history, moreover, believes in territorial, as well as mental expansion. It calls attention to neglected fields at the same time that it urges more intensive cultivation of those in hand. Western Europe and the United States have long been the stock areas in which history has been made to labor. Eastern Europe, Africa, Asia, Australia, Oceania and the regions of America lying outside of the United States have been regarded as history's Cape Non, beyond which inquiry may not go and live. They are mere incidentals, presumably, in the life of the chief nations of Western Europe, and in that of their compeer on this side of the water. Besides, the time available for learning and instructing is too brief to warrant excursions away from well-trodden lands, particularly since these lands are now seen to offer many an attraction hitherto unobserved by history. Yet the discovery of the New World, the expansion of European civilization over the globe, and the reaction upon that civilization caused by contact with countries and peoples, with institutions and ideas in every conceivable stage of development, are perhaps the most remarkable phenomena in the annals of the human race. These phenomena ought not to be slighted because certain events of distinctly minor value have been hallowed by repetition till they have become the fetiches of history. In courageous exercise of the right of selection and omission, which is the first duty of the student and teacher of history, such fetiches should be put out of the text-book and turned over to the encyclopedia or to other works of the sort. Their place may then be taken by the newer elements of history to which reference has been made. Among them is the study of the action and reaction visible in the spread of European culture over the world entire. For the successful pursuit of this study historical maps must be

available. Their construction and use will aid most efficaciously in convincing the teacher and the taught that the progress of humanity, and not the inculcation of patriotism, should be held up as the great object lesson of the ages.

Many other phases of history there are which receive no adequate treatment in existing maps. For the sake of convenience they may be grouped under the general term "institutions." The political divisions of a given country often afford no clue to the history of its administration or to the circumstances of administration at any particular period. Administrative areas are divisible into political, financial and judicial districts. To the extent that the activities of government in such districts have exerted an influence which history is bound to recognize, just so great is the necessity for the sort of illustration of the fact which maps may furnish. Assuredly no one could explain feudalism without due appreciation of its geographical bases, or the antecedents of the French Revolution without possessing a clear conception of the political, financial and judicial practices operative in different parts of France under the 'ancien' régime."

What is true of government institutions applies to those of an ecclesiastical character. Even if the course of human enlightenment has not yet proceeded far enough to permit the share of religion in history to be handled as impartially as the political element, the fact argues in no fashion against the use of ecclesiastical maps within the limits vouchsafed by taboo. In order to ascertain in a measure what that share has been, the cautious bounds of inquiry will not be overstepped by having available something more than conventional signs attached to certain names and designed to show the seats of a few bishoprics and monasteries in medieval times. Maps, therefore, are needed on which it will be possible to trace the spread of religious ideas and systems, especially of Christianity, and to illustrate ecclesiastical organization, monasticism, mission work, religious revolutions and the like. It is quite impossible, for example, to understand the character and achievements af that mighty empire, the Christian Church of the Middle Ages, without a graphic representation of its administrative divisions, of the distribution of the monastic orders, and the multifarious activities of monastic life.

From the social and economic standpoint the possibilities of enlarging the scope of historical maps seem almost innumerable. A few instances may be cited. The distribution of races, the influence of ethnic stocks, the shifting of population, the processes of colonization are all phenomena that call for attention from the map-maker. In like fashion, the story of the industries and of the institutions connected with them must be told in graphic form, all the way from the primitive occupations of tribal settlement and village community, through the manorial system and up to the complex activities of to-day and their environment. The kinds of commodities that have been brought forth, the scenes of their production and exchange, and the centres of traffic from the times of the markets and fairs onward, must be made known. The profound changes wrought by the Industrial Revolution must have a geographical setting that will help the student to understand their vast significance. Equally indispensable is an appreciation of the tremendous development of commerce and transportation. Not only the trade routes that have followed along natural highways but those created by the hand of man, the roads, the canals. the railways, and the many other means of communication by which invention has overcome distance, must all be properly represented.

Intellectual progress, also may be studied to great advantage on the map. One phase of it is education; hence the rise of universities, colleges and schools must be depicted. Works of literature, philosophy and science often require a geographical background to make their scenes and statements stand out in clear relief. The writings of the eminent men of all times take on a more definite meaning when associated with the physical and historical environment that maps afford. Nor can it ever be forgotten how wondrously man's intellectuality has expanded in coincidence with the territorial widening of his activities. The development of geographical knowledge and the multiple processes by which it has been attained, the deeds of the discoverer and explorer, the conqueror and the treaty-maker, the colonist and the empire-builder, performed beyond the seas, the evolution of the science of cartography, must be drawn upon most liberally by those who would understand and apply the newer concept of history.

While no single atlas, no collection of wall maps, large or small,

to be prepared in many years to come may contain all, or even the major part, of the materials that have been suggested, the ideal of such completeness should be faithfully upheld. What already exists should be enlarged and diversified as opportunities may arise. The teacher should contribute the fruits of his reading and experience. The pupil should be encouraged to produce as well as to reproduce. Historical maps and their making may then serve to intensify the truth of von Herder's dictum about geography and history: "They are the stage and the book of God's household—history the book and geography the stage."

WHAT HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS KNOW ABOUT HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Elizabeth Briggs

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Miss Briggs spoke upon the knowledge, or rather, the lack of knowledge of historical geography upon the part of secondary school pupils, as shown in the answer papers submitted to the College Entrance Examination Board. Up to 1905, the answers upon historical geography were uniformly rated lower than the answers to any other history questions. Since 1905 there has been a gradual improvement, until in 1910 and 1911 the geography answers were rated at about the same value as other history answers.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE TEACHING OF HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY

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Historical Geography is in the realm of Political History. Its province is to draw a map of a country or section of a country as it appeared after each of the different changes it has gone through, and then point out the historical causes which have led to the changes on the map. In this manner each step may be traced by the eye. From a study of it may reasonably be expected a stimulation towards a better understanding and appreciation of our national history.

It is asserted that children show a deplorable lack of knowledge of this subject; and that such lack of knowledge was discovered by an inspection of the papers in the College Entrance Examinations.

There are many causes for this condition of affairs and I shall try to briefly enumerate them and suggest some methods whereby better and more satisfactory results may ensue.

Thirty years ago or less in the United States the study of geography consisted in what was termed contemptuously "sailor geography" that is a pointing out of places; but of the great physical facts of the earth's surface, of the relation of contour and relief to hydrography, to climate, to organic life, and man's social and historic development, nothing whatever was learned. Geography held the despised position of handmaid to history. From this position it was rescued by the great Germans, Humboldt, Ritter, and others, who showed the relation between earth and man, and man and earth, and thus raised geography to the position of a pragmatic science.

But as frequently happens with sudden revolutions, the old is so despised and the new so entrancing that many mistakes are com-

mitted. It is all right to be progressive, but while being so, it is well to remember the admirable advice given by Edmund Burke that a certain amount of venerable rust is not to be despised. It was the proper thing to attempt to raise geography to the position of a science from a mere memory exercise on places, but where is the difference between an ancillary position to history and being a slave to science? If all the emphasis is put upon the nature element rather than upon the human element we are bound to have poor results for we are not keeping in mind the true nature of the study.

Geography is in part a nature science study, and in part a sociological study. Sociology and nature are so intimately related in it that much of the latter must be known to understand the former. In the old days it was possible for a child to have geography for eight years and never get a scientific geographical idea into his head, now it is possible to have eight years of geography from the scientific, economic, and industrial side, and at the end of the period the child may be found blissfully ignorant of the very elements of historical geography.

It is not right to give it a mere ancillary position to history, or to make geography a mere drudge in the service of nature study. The ideal position is that which recognizes that geography deserves to be more than the handmaid of history on the one hand, and more than a mere drudge of science on the other hand. It demands a place and a dignity of its own, combining the objects of the two methods, the historic and the scientific. We have gone too far in expunging all the "sailor geography" from our course and we are now waking up to the fact that it is not much aid to the pupil to know that an event has happened if he cannot locate that event in space and time and give it a local habitation and a name.

Why do children make so many mistakes in historical geography? The answer to this is a counter question. Why do we make so many mistakes? If a teacher in describing the voyage of Columbus draws on the blackboard a map of the entire western Continents, with a nomenclature of seas and bays, with mountain ridges and topographical features discovered three hundred years later, we need not be at all surprised at some of the historical inaccuracies of children. Such mistakes seem to be natural, and not confined to teachers. Even Washington Irving in describ-

ing the return of Columbus from his first voyage represents the people of Spain as breaking forth into transports of joy at the discovery of the new world. The mistake of the teacher and the mistake of Washington Irving are both due to the same error. It is the fallacy of projecting our present knowledge into the past. We now know that Columbus had discovered the new world such as the teacher places on the blackboard, but Columbus did not so much as suspect that he had done anything of the sort and, neither did the people of Spain. This is an anachronism.

If the children use modern maps altogether in describing our early history, they are liable to forget that these maps cannot possibly represent that crude notion of locality of which the early voyagers were possessed in an ignorant age. Many absurdities of children in historical geography are due to the modern makers of "ancient atlases" still current and in use in our schools, when, for example, they take a correct map of Europe with parts of Africa and Asia, and upon countries so dimly known to the ancients, as Africa, China, and Japan, and America, but now drawn with perfect accuracy, they simply print the ancient names. This does not give the pupils the correct idea of the slow progress of discovery. The only safe way to study the history and geography of America is to reproduce the ancient maps themselves. Many modern text books in history do this. This is the method of John Fiske, the most stimulating writer of historical geography of the nineteenth century. It is the method of Keith Johnston, the author of the best and only text book on historical geography yet available in the English tongue.

These old maps present small sections of the new discovered land and they gradually show the slow and painful growth of the knowledge of the North American Coast during two centuries after Columbus. This is the true method. It is the genetic, the evolutionary method, and if discreetly used will so associate events and places in a manner that will give the pupils true ideas.

Another source of an error is our practice of affixing specific dates to great events. This is, of course, indispensable, but it is sometimes misleading. Such an event as the discovery of a vast pair of both continents does not take place within a single year. When we speak of America as discovered in 1492, we don't mean

that the moment Columbus landed on two or three of the West Indies, a full outline map of the Western Hemisphere from Labrador and Alaska to Cape Horn suddenly sprang into existence like Pallas from the forehead of Zeus in the mind of European men. Yet somehow or other we teach geography in such a way that our teaching has neither force nor meaning save upon the tacit assumption that somehow or other this sort of thing must have happened. If the Hudson was reached in 1609 and if the teacher in describing the voyage of Hudson shows a modern map of New York harbor spanned with bridges and alive with ferry boats and cruisers, with perhaps an aeroplane over Governor's Island, and then follows the voyage of Henry Hudson up the lower bay, making sure he meets the Indians in canoes, why do we wonder at results that excite our risibility but condemn our own lack of historic perspective and geographic imagination?

This grotesque fallacy of projecting the present into the past lies at the bottom of much of our history. In our geographical lessons the tendency to overlook the fact that Henry Hudson and Columbus and John Cabot and their immediate successors did not sail with the latest edition of Rand McNally's General Atlas in their cabins is almost inveterate. Instead of showing the facts as a case of special creation on the date mentioned, it would be very much better to show it by means of old charts as a gradual evolution.

There is a further error in the teaching of history in connection with geography that is beginning to penetrate, and percolate into the common schools. It did not have its origin there; it is an inheritance from our universities, colleges, and high schools. It arose from a modern instance of an ancient dispute—from a conflict between the idea and the thing—from a recent combat between nominalism and realism. This error is found in the position of those who maintain that all history is a reflex or an echo of geographic conditions. It is an attempt to explain all recorded instances of human action by what, for want of a better term, I shall designate as geographic determinism.

Relief, contour, climate, coast line, proximity to or remoteness from other land masses, mountain ranges, proximity to ocean, are made the sole energizing factors, the sole ultimate determinants

of history, a man's action on the geographic stage are the net resultants and reflexes induced by the operations of these factors on the social organism. This theory is pressed hard by its exponents, and all history is interpreted by it, as a case of fatalism or determinism, the operative force being the geographic environment.

As a logical consequence of this treatment of history, the "idea" is slighted as an energizing factor; hence such things as patriotism, religion, and all the affections that cling around localities and events are regarded as by-products and are either minimized or ignored. The place is the thing. "Tell us the place," they say, "and we shall tell you its history and its potential capacity, past or present, to figure on the historic stage." Is it such a view as this that was implied in the contemptuous query uttered long ago. "Can any good come out of Nazareth?" History gives no uncertain answer to this query.

History is not a mere echo of geographic conditions, a mere reflex of the operation of geographic laws. Such crass materialism and determinism is a perversion of all knowledge. When we look back on Plymouth Rock, on Trenton, on Valley Forge, are we flushed into ecstasy by the contemplation of a glacial boulder, the adhesiveness of a Jersey swamp, the frozen scene of action, or do we rather think of the indomitable courage and the iron will of the actors? Was the operation of geographic laws the sole ultimate determinant of the Declaration of Independence, the Emancipation Proclamation, the Constitution? Yet these theorists would have us teach all history in precisely the same way as we would teach physics, or physiography, or geology.

I am opposed to determinism of any kind, geographic, economic, or what not, because no such theory will ever satisfy the demands of true science or the constitution of the human mind.

Patriotism, that splendid old Greek word, does not mean merely a love of places or physical forces; it means a love of the fathers, their homes, their ideals, their aspirations, their achievements. But under the inspiration of the theory of determinism patriotism is a surplus product wich can and should be neglected in the interests of so-called science.

This view of history as a reflex or echo of geographic laws

alone is a concrete case of the logical fallacy of assuming a "non causa pro causa. It is a logical consequence of monism, either idealistic or materialistic; and monism of either variety is wholly incapable of compelling universal intellectual assent for it does violence to the common sense of mankind.

Geography is the study of the earth as the home of man. This latest theory makes the home the master of the man, and the slave in his own home. It ignores man's imperious sway over his environment, denies his free will, plunges him into an inextricable fatalism, and makes of him a mere puppet on the geographic stage. Geographic control alone no more explains history than does economic control. Not on bread alone does man live. Before such facts as man's expression of himself in theology, in philosophy, in art, in science, in poetry, and all other institutions, geographic determinism is as powerless an exponent as any other fatalistic theory.

The true historic synthesis is that which recognizes the combined action of the idea and the geographic basis, the purposes and attempts of man's reason and efforts as modified by geographic influences. The utter dominance of the environment alone would leave the greater part of history an inexplicable confusion.

Using these principles, the idea and the environment, as a basis of historic explanation, I have worked out from old documents, town, colonial, and State, the history of the township of Gravesend, giving due credit to the two factors—the human and the geographic. And when I survey the cause of the local pride of these people in their township, and the tenacity with which they cling to their traditions and their ancient landmarks, I am convinced that they think more of the human actions performed on their little stage than they do of the dominating influence of its geographic environment.

Like all true men they love their land not only for its great mountains and mighty rivers, its rolling plains, its fertile soil, its salubrious and bracing air, the ocean that thunders in league long rollers at their feet, but they love it most of all because of the wider, purer, truer, freer, human life that exists upon the land. And truth and purity, and freedom and love, and high ideals are

not the product of any earthly soil; they are the generous outpourings of the human spirit in all ages, in all lands, in all times.

Somewhat like the Germans in their Heimatkunde I have used the following lesson to give the pupils a concrete example of the historic process. The scenes are familiar to them as their school is located in the township of Gravesend. By a little effort of the imagination they can see the primeval terrain. After this study they see clearly the result of the human element in history, and the influence of the geographic element. The latter element is shown in the inability of the township to become a great commercial center owing to the shallowness of the harbor waters.

Perhaps the best way to give pupils a test for Historical Geography is to begin like the Germans with the immediate vicinity. I have worked out a lesson in Historical Geography for the pupils of my school. It has proved to be intensely interesting. The school is located on the west end of Long Island in the old Colonial Township of Gravesend. It was the only English Settlement on the island; the others were Dutch. Its history is as follows:

A few years before the Puritans expelled Roger Williams from Massachusetts, an English Lady, Lady Deborah Moody, arrived from England in Salem in 1640. Her father had been a member of the House of Commons in the reign of James I; she herself was a relative of Oliver Cromwell. After arriving in Salem she became converted to the views of Roger Williams and was in consequence excommunicated. Hearing of the liberality of the Dutch in religious matters she came to New Amsterdam. Here she met an Englishman named Nicholas Stillwell. Not liking the Dutch language she purchased from Governor Kieft, as agent of the Dutch West India Company, a tract of land of 200 acres over against Coney Island. The land was a tractless waste having a few white settlers of the agricultural class, and numerous red men. The patent was issued in August 1639 and confirmed in 1643. This patent gave religious freedom and the power to erect the town. Like Dido the gentle lady led her colony to Gravesend. The names of still existing but rapidly vanishing roads bear witness to the faithful followers who accompanied her to found the colony.

In about the center of this township a square of 16 acres was

selected for the beginning of the village. Around this building was erected a stockade to ward off the Indians and the numerous wolves that infested the locality.

Through the tract diagonally led four roads part of which are still in existence. My school is located one block from one of these ancient roads on part of the property of the descendants ot Mr. Stillwell, whom Lady Moody met on her arrival in New Amsterdam and who accompanied her to Gravesend and rendered efficient service in making the colony a success.

Lady Moody must have been a very charming lady for it is recorded that Peter and Mrs. Stuyvesant were frequently entertained by Lady Moody, and Peter's wife expressed herself as being charmed with the courtly English lady. Lady Moody in selecting this locality had great hopes that in the near future it would rival New Amsterdam as a great business and commercial centre but unfortunately she did not know that the shallowness of the harbor and its exposure to the south east storms would prohibit it from ever becoming a rival of New Amsterdam.

Many troubles beset the young colony. Several times they were attacked by the Indians and on one occasion they had to take refuge in New Amsterdam. The last Indian invasion was in 1655 when the attacking party were the identical Indians who one month previously had murdered Anne Hutchinson. To make peace with the Indians, in 1684 they secured a deed from the red men for all the lands in Gravesend, paying for it one blanket, one gun, and one kettle. Surely the principle of fair dealing could go no further.

In 1646 the first meeting was held in a spot six blocks from our school; all were compelled to attend and were summoned by the beating of a drum or the sound of a horn. A bounty of five gilders was offered for every wolf killed. In 1650 the stocks were introduced for women who were habitual slanderers and for men who were prone to assaulting others. This lasted until the nineteenth century.

Lady Moody's liberality in religious matters became known. In 1672 George Fox, the Quaker, stopped at Gravesend on his American tour when he found several of his people and held three meetings there.

In 1660 a highway was built from the town to the beach on Coney Island. The settlers in Coney Island resented this but the people of Gravesend always maintained that Coney Island was included in the original patent issued to Lady Moody and to make good their claim they drove their cattle to pasture on the island. Many other disputes arose over this and finally their right to Coney Island was confirmed by a patent issued by Governor Dongan in 1686.

With these facts in view, we are better able to understand many subsequent events. We now understand why Gravesend occupied an important part in American History.

It was from Gravesend that the Dutch in New Amsterdam were first attacked by the English. From its English occupancy and its easy approach to New Amsterdam, it was the first spot in New Netherlands to feel the tread of the invading English soldiers. Feeling that he would receive a favorable reception in Gravesend, Colonel Nicoll, on August 25, 1663, landed his troops on the Gravesend shore and after a few days compelled Peter Stuyvesant to surrender New Amsterdam. He then named the place New York. And one hundred and twelve years later on this very shore Lord Howe disembarked his troops for the Battle of Long Island. Why did the English land on Gravesend Bay on the morning of August 1776? It is for the same reason that Colonel Nicolls landed there. They supposed that from its English antecedents and early English occupancy, Gravesend would be more pronouncedly Tory in its sentiment than the other towns, which were Dutch in origin—but the opposite was the case. The people of Gravesend stoutly resisted the march of the British army and knowing the ground very well they were able to harass them considerably. As a mark of appreciation for their loyalty to the revolution George Washington, while president, visited Gravesend on October 20, 1789 and held a sort of levee in the town square.

Now ladies and gentlemen: My purpose in presenting this matter to you is to make two points prominent. 1. The need of localizing historic events. The teachers and pupils become interested in what men said and did, but they forget to bring them down to earth. A few days ago I was in a class where Evangeline was being studied. I asked where she lived, and got all sorts of

ridiculous answers, some pointing out Sweden, and others Russia as her home. Few pupils had any idea of the journey traversed by her in her search of Gabriel. I think we should read not only history with the map before us but also many of the literary selections used in our school. Evangeline, Julius Caesar, Franklin's Autobiography and "The Sketch Book," all have local references and I think the events should be located.

My second point is the need of a little research work on the part of teachers and pupils. Nothing gives such vitality to historic or geographic information as the trouble in looking up old data. And one place well studied by individual research work will form a type by reference to which all other work may be well done.

There would be less complaint about the pupils' lack of knowledge of the location of important events and places if more emphasis were placed on the human side of geography and less on the physical side. We should protest against the efforts of those who would explain all history by means of physical geography. The manifest bankruptcy of materialism in its attempt to explain self-consciousness, and history, and all other spiritual phenomena will tend to moderate the zeal of those who would explain all history as nothing more than an echo of the operation of geographic laws, while the general common sense of mankind and the universal perception of our abiding personal identity under all changes of our physical bodies and under all varieties of environment, show us to be affected by them but still show that we are not intrinsically and wholly determined by them. Man's rational soul transends the pressure of environment, and this fact rather than his complete subjection to it should be made clear to our pupils, if we are to teach them that they are superior to the beasts of the field.

We should protest against the crass materialism which, spreading from our higher institution of learning and having for its purpose the ostensible one of unifying all knowledge, but in reality tending to the destruction of all science, pervades our text books and confuses and confounds the minds of our teachers, who anxious to be thought abreast of the times, spend their energies in teaching half-baked theories when they should be teaching essential facts of topograpy. Children cannot be taught these things.

They cannot see relations which are not at all obvious to adults and the attempt to make them do so is bound to be futile and a failure. They must be taught history with the map before their eyes. All the essential places and events should be definitely located in space and time, and instead of wasting our time on relating instances of geographic control we should teach them the evident facts of history in connection with the geographic basis on which those events took place. By all means show how far physical conditions restrict and control the activities of men. But in doing so do not make environment the dominating factor. This would reduce men to automatons and then both history and geography as well as all other sciences would fall into hopeless ruin and confusion.

DISCUSSION

Frederick H. Paine, Eastern District High School, Brooklyn.

Work in historical geography of a more intensive character than we are now doing is impracticable under the present State syllabuses. Few things in our history courses consume time so exorbitantly as geography. The best sort of wall map is, I believe, a bare outline with most of the physical features eliminated, particularly the extraordinary network of rivers appearing on maps now produced.

Arthur M. Wolfson, DeWitt Clinton High School, New York.

While I believe that such an atlas as Professor Shepherd describes would be a wonderful reference book, I personally should never put it into the hands of my students. I find that an atlas or even a single map which contains too much detail is merely confusing to the mind of high school students. If I had my way, maps in text books, for instance, would show absolutely nothing that was not indispensible for the understanding of the text. Such maps should have the physical features—mountains, rivers and coast indentations sharply indicated and only such names printed on them as are actually mentioned in the text.

For wall maps I consider those ideal which are entirely free from all printing, which indicate merely the physical features—mountains, rivers, lakes, climatic conditions, agricultural and mineral resources—nothing more. With the aid of such maps I can best teach my students to indicate great economic, social and political changes.

In preparation for this work, I am accustomed to emphasize the necessity of being able to *draw* (reconstruct from memory) maps rather than the facility of being able to *copy* them. Most students are quite content to do the latter. "Study the atlas and the text book all you please," I am constantly saying to my students, "but do not imagine that you have mastered the subject until you are able to reconstruct without any aids what you have learned from your text book and your atlas."

Julius Sachs, Teachers College, Columbia University.

It seems to me unwise to combine in the historical maps that are to be employed for the successive stages of national development a detailed presentation of the physical conformation of certain regions. Let us remember that the physical conditions of a country or region are constant elements; mountains, rivers, harbors, winds, general climatic conditions constitute the permanent

features, political combinations cannot readily run counter to them, but on the other hand there may be temporary modifications that are separable from the physical environment. I should therefore advocate empathically the use of physical maps by the side of the historical wall-maps.

May I address a question to Professor Shepherd? He criticized very emphatically the unaesthetic color-scheme that prevails on a number of German historical wall-maps. I recognize the force of the criticism, but would it be possible to make the boundaries and the changes of political combination sufficiently marked in a series of maps with a relatively neutral color-scheme?

William E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania.

I rise merely to express my sincere appreciation of Professor Shepherd's stimulating address. There is, I think, danger of over-emphasizing the physical geography, looking upon it as a subject to be studied for its own sake rather than as a hand-maid to history. My own feeling is that the environment, either geographical or climatic, should be present in the mind of the history teacher very much as the stage and its setting are in the mind of the audience at the theatre, as well as in the mind of the playwright and the actor. I wish to emphasize also the great value of outline blackboard maps to bring out the point particularly involved in each lesson.

Katherine F. Belcher, Barringer High School, Newark.

While in hearty accord with much of Dr. Shepherd's stimulating paper, yet I cannot but feel that the average high school teacher would hate to banish all maps from history text-books. The ideal plan is, as Dr. Shepherd suggests, an individual atlas to go with each text-book, but that condition, for the majority of our public high schools, is out of the question, on account of the expense involved. Wall maps and reference atlases in school are good and necessary, but they cannot take the place of the map that ought to be constantly at hand, for reference, whenever the student happens to be studying his lesson. It just occurs to me to wonder why it would not be a good thing, instead of having poorly made, incomplete maps, scattered through the text, often in the wrong places, to have bound altogether in the back of the book, a series of well made maps, each pretty complete in itself, though each should seem to explain some particular subject or epoch. I should like to have printed at the end of such a series, a page or two, of a regular atlas index, as a guide for the different map plates. This arrangement would not make the book any more bulky, but if the maps were well done, it would cost more. However, I think it would be a better tool and I am inclined to think, would make a better workman.

TREASURER'S REPORT

1911-1912

RECEIPTS

Balance on hand, March 11, 1911	$372.48	
Dues paid during year	181.00	
Received from sales of Reports	.25	
		$553.73

DISBURSEMENTS

Expense of visiting speaker	$16.00	
Printing and stationery	24.75	
Postage	40.36	
Clerical help	7.00	
Exchange	.30	
Telephone	.60	
Subscription to guarantee fund, History Teachers' Magazine	100.00	
		$189.01
Balance		$364.72

Audited and found correct.

(Signed) Antoinette Lawrence
Livingston Rowe Schuyler
Albert E. McKinley

CONSTITUTION

Article I. Name and Purpose

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland." Its purpose shall be twofold: first, to advance the study and teaching of history and government through discussion and publication; and, secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history.

Article II. Membership

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. Officers

The officers shall be a president, a vice-president, and a secretary (who shall also act as treasurer), who, with the retiring president and four others, shall constitute a council in which shall be vested the general direction of the affairs of the Association, including the appointment of any necessary committees. The members of the Council, with the exception of the retiring president, who is *ex officio* a member, shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting.

Article IV. Meetings

The annual meetings of the Association shall be held at the time and place annually designated by the Council.

Article V. Annual Dues

The membership fee shall be $1.00, payable at the time of the annual meeting.

Article VI. Amendments

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given at the call for the meeting.

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Foote, Edmund W.	DeWitt Clinton H. S.	New York City
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Gaskill, Lois L.	Polytechnic Prep. Schl.	Brooklyn, N. Y.
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Giltner, Emmett E.	N.Y.Trng.Sch.for Tchrs.	New York City
Goertner, Rose	Washington Irving H. S.	New York City
Gerschanek, Sinai	Harlem Prep. School	New York City
Goodwin, W. Grant	Curtis High School	New York City
Greene, Louise K.	High School	Montclair, N. J.
Haeseler, Louise H.	High School for Girls	Philadelphia, Pa.
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Lowengrund, Helen M.	Phila. H. S. for Girls.	Philadelphia, Pa.
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Messick, C. P.	High School	Trenton, N. J.
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Milliken, Millie B.		Morrisville, Pa.
Morrey, Wm. T.	Morris High School	New York City
Mulliner, Clara L.	High School	Camden, N. J.
Murray, Lucy E.	Western High School	Baltimore, Md.
Muzzey, David S.	Barnard College	New York City
Myers, Prof. Wm. S.	Princeton University	Princeton, N. J.
Myrick, Harriet A.		Clinton, N. Y.
Newman, Lillian	State Model School	Trenton, N. J.
Newton, C. B.	Lawrenceville Academy	Lawrenceville, N. J.
North, Mary	High School	Montclair, N. J.
Northrop, Amanda C.	Normal College	New York City
Northwood, Bertha		Trenton, N. J.
Noyes, Edmund S.	Central High School	Washington, D. C.
Osgood, Ellen L.	High School	Bayonne, N. J.
Packard, F. L.	Montclair High School	Montclair, N. J.
Pahlow, Edwin W.	Lawrenceville School	Lawrenceville, N. J.
Paine, Frederick H.	East. Dist. H. S.	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Parmenter, Eleanor	State Model School	Trenton, N. J.
Pearson, Henry C.	Horace Mann School	New York City

Pendleton, Venita		Bryn Athyn, Pa.
Peterson, A. Everett	Morris High School	New York City
Pierson, Marv J.		New York City
Price, Blanche D.	Com. H. S. for Girls	Philadelphia, Pa.
Price, Mary P. E.	Girls' High School	Philadelphia, Pa.
Prochnow, Charlotte S.		Mt. Vernon, N. Y.
Pugh, Alex. L.	High School of Com.	New York City
Puig, Loiuse M.	Manual Training H. S.	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Qiumby, Mary A.	Berwyn H. S.	Berwyn, Pa.
Rand, Edwin W.	Rand Collegiate School	Trenton, N. J.
Rapp, Paul		New York City
Reilly, Susan A.		Trenton, N. J.
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